2

1

### 4

5 6

# 89

10

Molecular characterization of Indoor air Microorganisms of a Model Primary Health Care in Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria.

## ABSTRACT

**Aims:** The quality of indoor air in some government health institutions in Port Harcourt was evaluated with a view to determining the level of microbial contamination and to carry out molecular identification of the microorganism in the indoor air.

Study design: Experimental analysis of the Indoor air of frequently used wards.

**Place and Duration of Study:** Model Primary Health Care in Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria, between January 2018 and March 2018.

**Methodology:** The open plate, impingement technique was used in this study. In this technique, nutrient agar, and mannitol salt agar plates were exposed to the ambient air of the sites studied in duplicates for 15 minutes so as to enumerate and identify the heterotrophic bacteria and staphylococcal species.

**Results:** The mean heterotrophic bacteria and staphylococcal loads for the morning period of the Health centre ranged from  $1.8 \times 10^3$  to  $4.1 \times 10^3$  and  $8.6 \times 10^2$  to  $2.5 \times 10^3$  Cfu/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively, while the mean heterotrophic bacteria and staphylococcal load for the evening session ranged from  $3.5 \times 10^3$  to  $5.1 \times 10^3$  and  $8.9 \times 10^2$  to  $1.7 \times 10^3$  Cfu/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively. *Bacillus cereus, Chryseobacterium* sp, *Proteus mirabilis, Staphylococcus aureus,* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis* were the bacteria isolated.

**Conclusion:** The bacterial isolates in this study could contaminate hospital equipment and could cause nosocomial infections if not properly managed. Also, the bacterial loads were very high and exceeds suggested limit for air microflora.

11

Keywords: Indoor air, Model health care, Bacteria, Staphylococcus sp, Molecular
characterization.

14 15

# 16 1. INTRODUCTION

Indoor air is the air that is within a building. The air within a building that aids comfort and good health of the occupants is referred to as the indoor air and the quality of the indoor air is influenced by contaminations from microbial sources, gases as well as other particles which could lead to poor health conditions [1].

21 There is a strong connection between the human health and a healthy environment [2]. This 22 could imply that the type of microorganism in the air inside a building could affect or 23 influence the health of the persons within that building and that the nature or type of the 24 organism and the number of the organisms could be related to the persons within the 25 building and the type of activities carried out [3]. Biological sources which contaminates the 26 air could be bacteria, fungi, pollen, viruses and mites [4, 5]. For good health and wellbeing, 27 all living humans and animal need clean air. However, due to urban development, the air is 28 continuously polluted. Urban ambient air is more polluted than overall atmosphere, due to high density of human population and their activities in urban areas [6]. Physical, chemical 29 30 and biological factors can alter or change the indoor air quality and the physical factors

include a range of issues from temperature, humidity and air movement to dust, lighting and 31 32 noise, while chemical factors include pollutants arising from paint, carpets, furniture, 33 environmental tobacco smoke, cosmetics and drapes. For the biological factors, 34 microorganisms play the main role, because the inhalation of bacterial, fungal and micro 35 algal spores can cause an allergic reaction [7]. A poor indoor air guality can cause a variety 36 of short-term and long-term health problems including allergic reactions, respiratory problems, eye irritation, sinusitis, bronchitis and pneumonia [1]. Fungal flora can be 37 38 hazardous for health, particularly in rooms with heating, ventilation and air conditioning 39 systems in place [8]. Biological contamination of indoor air is mostly caused by bacteria, moulds and yeast. They can be dangerous as pathogenic living cells but they can also 40 secrete some substances harmful for health. These are different kinds of toxic metabolism 41 products, for example mycotoxins [9]. Information regarding the quality of indoor air in 42 government model primary health care in Rivers State is scanty. Also, different studies of 43 44 indoor air in Rivers State have characterized the microorganisms using colonial/morphological characteristics and biochemical reactions. This study therefore was 45 46 aimed at investigating the indoor air quality as well as characterizing the microorganisms 47 using both cultural and molecular methods.

48

### 49 **2. Material and Method**

50

### 51 2.1. Description of Study Area

The study area was the Model Primary Health Centre, Rumuigbo. The model primary health care centre, Rumuigbo is located in Rumuigbo along the Rumuokoro high way immediately after the Obi Wali round about in Obio/Akpor Local Government Area, Rivers State. Its coordinates were 4.850°N and 6.991°E. There are about eight wards within the primary health centres out of which only four (namely the children ward, Outpatient ward, Injection room and the Post-natal ward) are constantly used while the other wards were not utilized as at the time of this study.

### 59 2.2. Indoor Air Sampling

The Koch's sedimentation method also known as the "settling plate" or "passive" air technique described by previous studies [3, 10, 11] was adopted. This technique involved exposing Petri plates containing growth medium to the atmosphere of the place under study for a given time of which 15 minutes was used in this study. Four wards which includes the children ward, outpatient ward, post-natal ward and the injection room of the health centre was studied. The indoor air was sampled for two durations of the day (i.e. morning and evening).

67

### 68 2.3. Microbiology of Indoor Air

### 69 2.3.1. Enumeration and Isolation of Indoor Bacteria

70 Freshly prepared sterile nutrient agar (NA) and Mannitol salt agar plates in duplicate were 71 exposed to air at the different sampling sites for about 15 minutes to allow air microflora 72 within the wards to settle on the surface of the medium by gravity. The plates were kept about 1m above ground level to eliminate possible contamination and aid guick settling of 73 74 microbial particles. The plates were covered and transported to the microbiology laboratory 75 of the Rivers State University and incubated for 24 hours at 37°C. Counts were made for plates that showed significant growth at the end of incubation as described by Amadi et al. 76 77 [12].

78

### 79 **2.3.2. Estimation of the Colony Forming Units (Cfu)**

The colonies from each plate were estimated using the Koch's sedimentation formula as described by previous studies [3, 10, 11].

82

 $A = \frac{a \times 10000}{0.2 \times \pi r^2 \times t} \dots \text{equation.}$ 83

84

85 Where:

86 A = CFU (colony forming unit)

87 a= average number of colonies

88 r = radius of Petri dish

89 t = time (minute) of exposure of the plate

90

#### 91 2.3.4 Isolation of bacteria

92 Discrete colonies on the different media plates were picked and inoculated onto freshly 93 prepared nutrient agar plates for bacteria purification. Pure cultures of the isolates were 94 obtained by streaking the isolates on freshly prepared medium until it was ascertained that 95 there were no contaminants.

96

#### 97 2.3.5. Maintenance of Pure Cultures

98 Pure cultures of bacteria were stored in duplicate in 10% (v/v) frozen glycerol suspensions in 99 the refrigerator [12] and on nutrient agar slants. This served as stock cultures used for 100 further identification procedures.

101

#### 102 2.3.6. Characterization and Identification of Bacterial Isolates

Methods of characterizations employed were colour, shape, texture, odour, and microscopy 103 under an oil immersion light microscope. Biochemical tests adopted include motility, catalase 104 105 test, growth on blood agar, haemolysis test and coagulase test, citrate utilization and sugar 106 fermentation tests. The procedures were carried out as described by Cheesbrough [13]. 107 Isolates were further confirmed using the Bergy's manual of determinative Bacteriology [14] before subjecting them to the molecular base method of identification. 108

109

#### 110 2.3.7. Molecular-Based Technique

#### 111 DNA extraction (Boiling method)

112 The boiling method as described by previous studies [15, 16] with slight modification was 113 used in extraction of bacteria DNA. Twenty-four (24) hours old cultures of test isolates were transferred in to Luria Bertani (LB) medium and incubated for 24 hours. After incubation, five 114 115 milliliters of the turbid overnight broth culture of the bacterial isolate in Luria Bertani (LB) was spun at 14000rpm for 3 min. The cells were re-suspended in 500µl of normal saline and 116 heated at 95°C for 20 min. The heated bacterial suspension was cooled on ice and spun for 117 118 3 min at 14000rpm. The supernatant containing the DNA was transferred to a 1.5ml micro 119 centrifuge tube and stored at -20°C [17].

#### 2.3.7.1. Quantification of DNA 120

The Nanodrop 1000 spectrophotometer was used to quantify the extracted DNA. 121

122

#### 123 2.3.7.2. Amplification of the 16S rRNA

This was carried out according to the methods of Saitou and Nei [18]. The 27F and 1492R 124 125 primers on ABI 9700 Applied Biosystems thermal cycler in a total volume of 25µl for 35 126 cycles were used to amplify the 16s rRNA of the rRNA genes of isolates. The PCR mix was 127 composed of the X2 Dream tag Master mix supplied by Ingaba, South Africa (tag 128 polymerase, DNTPs, MgCl). The forward and reverse primers at a concentration of 0.4M and 129 the extracted DNA representing the template. The conditions of the PCR were adjusted: 130 initial denaturation, 95°C for 5 minutes; denaturation, 95°C for 30 seconds; annealing, 52°C for 30 seconds; extension, 72°C for 30 seconds for 35 cycles and final extension, 72°C for 131 5 minutes. The product was resolved on a 1% agarose gel at 120V for 15 minutes and 132 visualized on a UV transilluminator. 133

#### 134 2.3.7.3. Sequencing and Phylogenetic Analysis

135 The BigDye Terminator kit on a 3510 ABI sequencer by Ingaba Biotechnological, Pretoria 136 South Africa was used in sequencing. Phylogenic analysis was carried out by editing 137 resulting sequences with the aid of the bioinformatics algorithm Trace edit tool having 138 downloaded similar sequences from the National Center for Biotechnology Information 139 (NCBI) data base using BLASTN. Downloaded sequences were aligned using ClustalX and 140 the evolutionary history was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method in MEGA 6.0 [18]. 141 The bootstrap consensus tree inferred from 500 replicates [17] was taken to represent the evolutionary history of the taxa analyzed. The evolutionary distances were computed using 142 143 the Jukes-Cantor method (Jukes and Cantor, 1969).

### 145 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 146

144

147 The mean counts for the total heterotrophic bacteria and staphylococcal counts of the 148 various wards is presented in Figures 1 and 2, respectively. The mean counts of the 149 heterotrophic bacteria for the morning period ranged from 1.8×10<sup>3</sup> to 4.1×10<sup>3</sup>; while the evening counts ranged from 3.5×10<sup>3</sup> to 5.1×10<sup>3</sup> cfu/m<sup>3</sup>. It was observed that the highest 150 bacterial load for both the morning and evening period was recorded in the Outpatient ward 151 152 (Fig. 1). Furthermore, the outpatient ward had the highest viable bacterial load followed by 153 the children ward. The injection ward had the least viable bacteria counts for both periods 154 (Fig 1). The low bacterial loads recorded in the injection ward of the Health Centre could be 155 attributed to the purpose for which it is used for. The injection ward is the ward that is set 156 aside to administer injections and it was observed during the study that patients were not 157 much in this ward as compared to other wards. The high bacterial load in the outpatient ward 158 was expected as it served different purposes such as sensitization or sharing of health tips, 159 reception, sample collection points and site for dispensing drugs. Thus, the outpatient ward 160 was always crowded. Statistically, there was no significant difference (P > 0.05) in the total 161 heterotrophic counts between the children and postnatal ward while there was a significant difference between the injection, outpatient ward and children ward. 162

The staphylococcal load ranged from  $8.6 \times 10^2$  to  $2.5 \times 10^3$  and  $8.9 \times 10^2$  to  $1.7 \times 10^3$  cfu/m<sup>3</sup> for the morning and evening session, respectively. The postnatal ward had the highest staphylococcal load followed by the outpatient ward in the evening period (Fig 2). Despite the high staphylococcal counts recorded in the various study sites, there was no significant difference at P>0.05 for the morning session and the evening period.

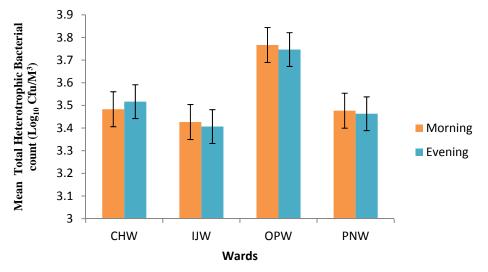


Fig 1. Total heterotrophic bacteria of morning and evening sessions of the Rumuigbo
health centre

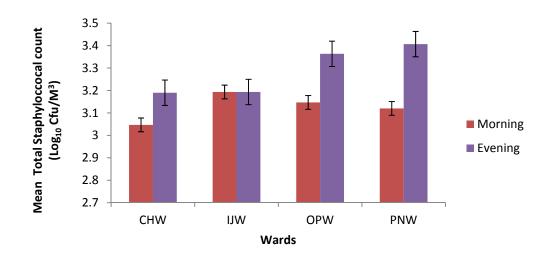


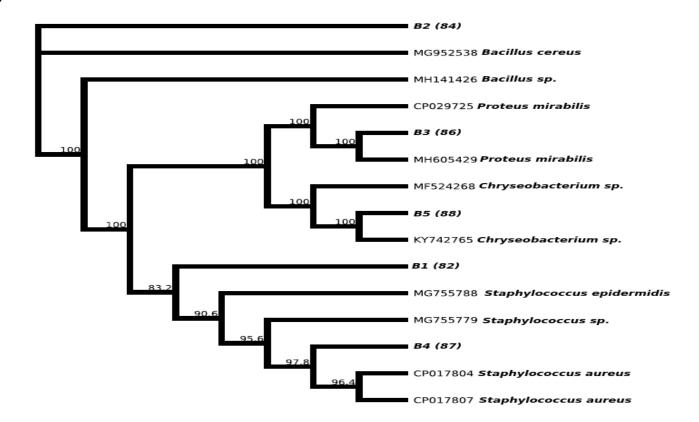
Fig 2. Staphylococcal load of morning and evening sessions of the Rumuigbo health
centre

175

176

Apart from the heterotrophic bacterial load of the children ward, the staphylococcal load of 177 178 the postnatal and outpatient ward which were higher in the evening period, all other 179 microbial populations (heterotrophic bacterial, and staphylococcal loads) of the respective 180 wards were more in the morning period. The findings in this current study of the microbial 181 population greatly deviates from the result of a recent study on the evaluation of indoor air 182 for bacteria organisms and their antimicrobial susceptibility profiles in a government health 183 institution by Wemedo and Robinson [3] who reported that the microbial loads in the evening 184 period were higher than those of the morning period. The health Centre does not have staffs 185 on shift during the evening period which makes the area vacant as nurses including staffs 186 and patients vacate the building. The high bacterial load in the evening period of the children 187 ward could be attributed to the presence of more children as well as the continuous 188 movement of clinicians and parents within the ward. High microbial load during the evening 189 period has been reported in previous studies [3, 19]. The high microbial populations during 190 the sampling periods might have been influenced by a number of factors including the 191 number of persons in the wards, ventilation methods as well as activities being carried out 192 within this space. Studies have revealed that the influx of persons as well as activities within 193 those spaces is responsible for high microbial load as well as the type of microorganisms within the indoor air [3, 11, 20]. During the study, it was observed that the health centre 194 195 relied on mechanical and natural ventilation during the peak of work activities, and the 196 mechanical ventilators which were electrically powered were not consistent due to power 197 fluctuations. The evening period were also ventilated mechanically (electric ceiling and 198 standing fans) and naturally via open windows. This could also be a considerable factor for 199 the fluctuations of microbial load observed in the various study sites. Also, the health centres 200 were sited along busy roads and accommodations for staffs were provided within the 201 hospital area. Thus, activities of the indwellers could contribute to the increased microbial 202 load after work activities. Other scholars had revealed that direct relationship exist between 203 ventilation and indoor levels of bacteria and fungi. Assertions were made stating that good 204 ventilation causes a reduction in microbial load [20].

171



#### 207 Fig 3: Phylogenic tree of the various isolates showing evolutionary distances

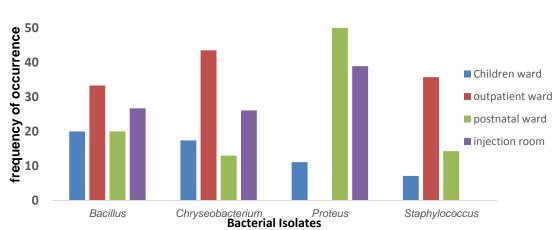
208

#### 209 During the megablast search for highly similar sequences from the NCBI non-redundant 210 nucleotide (nr/nt) data base of the extracted 16S rRNA sequence of the isolates, an exact 211 match was found. The 16S rDNA of the isolates B2, B3, B5, B1 and B4 showed a 99% percentage similarity to Bacillus cereus, Proteus mirabilis, Chryseobacterium sp, 212 213 Staphylococcus epidermidis and Staphylococcus aureus. The evolutionary distances 214 computed using the Jukes-Cantor method were in conformity with the phylogenetic placement of the isolates within the Bacillus, Proteus, Chryseobacterium, and 215 Staphylococcus sp and revealed closely relatedness to Bacillus cereus, Proteus mirabilis, 216 217 Chryseobacterium, Staphylococcus epidermidis and Staphylococcus aureus (mg952538, 218 mh605429, ky742765, mg755788 and mg755779), respectively than other species) (Figure 3).

219

220 In the primary health centre, Bacillus, Chryseobacterium and Staphylococcus species were 221 isolated in all the study sites (wards) while Proteus mirabilis was isolated in the entire ward 222 except in the outpatient ward. Staphylococcus species, Bacillus species, and Clostridium 223 species are the most prevalent bacterial genera that are found within the indoor air [21]. The 224 frequency of occurrence of bacterial isolates in the children ward revealed that Bacillus was 225 most predominant (20%) followed by Chryseobacterium (17.4%) and Proteus (11.1%) while Staphylococcus was the least (7.1%). In the outpatient ward, Chryseobacterium species had 226 the highest frequency of occurrence (43.5%) followed by Staphylococcus species (35.7%) 227 228 while Proteus mirabilis did not occur (Fig 3). The frequency of occurrence of Proteus species in the postnatal ward was higher than other bacterial isolates and was the second most 229

230 predominant in the injection ward (38.9%) which was dominated by Staphylococcus species 231 (42.9%) as shown in Fig 4. Chrysobacterium species which are gram negative rods are 232 ubiquitous with major occurrence in soil, fresh and marine water including chlorinated water. 233 As an environmental contaminant, it can colonize sinks and taps and also serves as 234 reservoirs for infections within health care environments. Infections through contaminated 235 medical equipment such as respirators, mist tents and humidifiers, for new babies and adults 236 with compromised immune system have been reported [22, 23]. Thus, there prevalence in 237 the sampling sites of the study locations could be attributed to the flow of air current from the 238 outside environment or through the use of contaminated water to clean floor surfaces or the 239 use of contaminated medical instrument. Chryseobacterium species are transient flora [23] 240 so discharge by human into the environment could only be by persons infected with the 241 pathogens. Previous studies have reported it to be associated with infections such as 242 endocarditis, wounds, skin including soft-tissue infections [24, 25, 26]. Thus, there prolonged prevalence in this study site could result to infections. 243



244 Bacterial Isolates 245 Fig 4: Frequency (%) of occurrence of bacteria in the four wards of Rumuigbo Primary Health 246 Care.

247 With the exception of Chryseobacterium species in this study, Bacillus, Proteus and 248 Staphylococcus species which occured in the indoor air of this current study have been 249 identified in indoor air by previous studies to be associated with nosocomial infections [19, 250 20, 23, 27]. Wemedo and Robinson [3] have isolated Bacillus and Staphylococcus species 251 from the indoor air of a government health centre which agreed with the current study. These 252 microbes are mostly transmitted either through water, food or by person to person or through 253 contact with noncritical surfaces. Proteus mirabilis, a gram-negative rod, is a normal 254 inhabitant of the human gut and it is also found in water and soil. Its motile nature aids it in 255 contaminating medical instruments and thereby enhances the chances of causing diseases. 256 This pathogen accounts for 1-2% of urinary tract infections and 5% of hospital acquired 257 urinary tract infections [28] Proteus mirabilis has been isolated as a contaminant of hospital 258 equipment and was found to cause many ill health arising from gram negative bacilli [29]. 259 Thus, there presence could be attributed to use of materials contaminated with the 260 pathogen.

- 261
- 262

### 263 4. CONCLUSION

60

This study recorded high microbial loads which exceeds the suggested limits of 1000Cfu/m<sup>3</sup>. The microorganisms identified in this study could be potential pathogens to the health of persons within these environments especially the patients and immune compromised persons. Contamination of hospital equipment is possible, thus proper sterilization of 268 equipment before use should be encouraged. Furthermore, proper ventilation should be a 269 priority when setting up a health care institution.

270

#### **COMPETING INTERESTS** 271

272 273

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

274

275 276

281

299

300

301

308

309

310

#### 277 ETHICAL APPROVAL

Ethical Approval was sought and obtained from the Ethical committee Rivers State Primary 278 279 Health care board, Port Harcourt. The MOH granted the permission to conduct the research 280 in the various wards.

#### REFERENCES 282

- 1. Marmot A.F., Eley J, Stafford S.A, Warrick E, Marmot M.G. Building health: an 283 284 epidemiological study of sick building syndrome in the Whitehall II study, 285 Occupational and Environmental Medicine. 2006; 63: 283-289. 286
  - Botkin D.B, Keller E.A. Environmental science: Earth as a living planet. (2007). 2.
- 287 3. Wemedo SA, Robinson VK. Evaluation of indoor air for bacteria organisms and their 288 antimicrobial susceptibility profiles in a government health institution. Journal of 289 Advances in Microbiology. 2018;11(3):1-7. 290
  - 4. Nevalainen A, Seuri, M. microbes and men, Indoor Air. 2005; 15: 58–64.
- Khan A.A.H. Karuppavil S.M. Practices contributing to biotic pollution in 291 5. 292 Airconditioned indoor environments, Aerobiologia. 2011; 27: 85-89.
- 293 6. Ling Z, Guo H, Cheng H, Yu, Y. Sources of ambient volatile organic compounds and their contributions to photochemical ozone formation at a site in the Pearl River 294 295 Delta, southern China, Environmental Pollution. 2011; 159: 2310-2319.
- 296 7. Silviu B, Andrei LC, Cristian A., Bianca G. O. Indoor Air Quality Assessment Through Microbiological Methods. Journal of Young Scientist. 2015; 3: 12-13. 297 298
  - 8. La Serna I, Dopazo A, Aira M.J. Airborne fungal spores in the Campus of Anchieta (La Laguna, Tenerife/Canary Is.). Grana. 2002; 41: 119.
  - Daisey J.M, Angel W.J, Apte MG. Indoor air quality, ventilation and health symptoms in schools; an analysis of existing information Indoor Air. 2003; 13,53.
- 302 10. Latika B. Ritu V. Hospital Indoor Airborne Microflora in Private and Government 303 Owned Hospitals in Sagar City, India. International Journal of Environmental 304 Engineering and Management. 2011; 2 (1): 69-77.
- 305 11. Douglas S. I, Robinson V. K. Fungal Pollution of Indoor Air of Some Health Facilities 306 in Rivers State. International Journal of Tropical Disease & Health. 2018; 32(2): 1-7. 307
  - 12. Amadi E.N, Kiin-Kabari D.B, Kpormon L.B, Robinson V.K.K. Microbial flora and nutritional composition of adult Palm - Wine Beetle (Rhychophorus phoenicus). International journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Science. 2014; 3(11): 189-192.
- 311 13. Cheesebrough M. District Laboratory Practice in Tropical Countries. Part 2, 312 Cambridge University Press, London, UK. 2000; pp. 143 – 156.
- 14. Holt JG, Krieg NR, Sneath P. H. A, Staley J. T, Williams S. T. Bergey's Manual of 313 314 Determinative Bacteriology, Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore, Maryland, USA. 1994; 315 151 - 157.
- 15. Svastova P, Pavlik I. "Rapid differentiation of Mycobacterium avium subsp. avium 316 317 and Mycobacterium avium subsp. paratuberculosis by amplification of insertion 318 element IS901." Veterinarni Medicina-Praha. 2002; 47(5): 117-121.
- 319 16. Diana J, Pui C. "Enumeration of Salmonella spp., Salmonella typhi and Salmonella typhimurium in fruit juices." International Food Research Journal. 2012; 19: 51-56. 320

321 322	17.	Felsenstein J. Confidence limits on phylogenies: An approach using the bootstrap. Evolution. 1985; 39:783-791.
323	18.	Saitou N, Nei M. The neighbor-joining method: A new method for reconstructing
324		phylogenetic trees. Molecular Biology and Evolution. 1987; 4:406-425.
325	19.	Agbagwa O. E, Onyemaechi S. A. Microbiological quality of indoor air of a general
326		hospital health center in Rivers State Nigeria. International Journal of Current
327		Microbiology and Applied Science. 2014; 3(12): 424-431.
328	20.	Emuren K, Ordinioha B. Microbiological assessment of indoor air quality at different
329		sites of a tertiary hospital in South-South Nigeria. Port Harcourt Medical Journal.
330		2016; (10):79-84.
331	21.	Shiva A. Air Microbiology. Department of microbiology DSM College
332		https://www.scribd.com/doc/19079015/Air-Microbiology, 2009. Accessed April 14,
333		2017.
334	22.	Jeffrey T. K, Helio S.S, Timothy R.W, Ronald N. J. Antimicrobial Susceptibility and
335		Epidemiology of a Worldwide Collection of Chryseobacterium spp.: Report from the
336		Sentry Antimicrobial Surveillance Program (1997–2001). Journal of Clinical
337		Microbiology. 2004; (42): 445–448.
338	23.	Calderon G, Garcia E, Rojas P, Rosso, M, Losada A. Chryseobacterium
339		indologenes infection in a newborn: a case report. Journal of Medical Case Reports.
340		2011; 5:10.
341	24.	Bloch K. C, Nadarajah R, Jacobs R. Chryseobacterium meningosepticum: an
342		emerging pathogen among immunocompromised adults. Medicine. 1997;76: 30–41.
343	25.	Ceyhan M, Celik, M. Elizabethkingia meningosepticum (Chryseobacterium
344		meningosepticum) infection in children. International Journal of Pediatric. 2011;
345		215–37.
346	26.	Chiu C. H, Waddington M, Greenberg D, Schreckenberger P. C, Carnahan A. M.
347		Atypical Chryseobacterium meningosepticum and meningitis and sepsis in
348		newborns and the immunocompromised, Taiwan. Emerging Infectious Diseases.
349		2000; 6: 481–486.
350	27.	Prescott L.M, Harley J.P, Klein, D.A. Microbiology, (8th Edition), London: WMC
351		Brown Publishers. 2011.
352	28.	Lisa A. F, Jessica S. Proteus mirabilis Infections. NCBI.
353		https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK442017, 2017. Accessed August 6, 2018.
354	29.	Tohidnia M.R, Dezfolimanesh J, Almasi A. Bacterial contamination of radiography
355		equipment in radiology departments of Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences
356		(2010). Journal of Kermanshah University Medical Science. 2013; 16(3), 273–276.
357		
358		
-		